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Applied Catalysis B: Environmental

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On the selectivity of CO₂ photoreduction towards CH₄ using Pt/TiO₂ catalysts supported on mesoporous silica



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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: CO₂ reduction Artificial photosynthesis Pt/TiO₂ Ordered mesoporous silica NAP-XPS

ABSTRACT

Pt/TiO₂ and Pt/TiO₂-COK-12 photocatalysts have been prepared by a deposition-precipitation method and characterized by means of X-ray diffraction (XRD), N₂ adsorption isotherms, transmission electron microscopy (TEM), UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (UV–vis DRS) and inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES). The photocatalytic activity of as-prepared photocatalyst was tested for the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ under UV light in a continuous flow gas-phase photoreactor. CH₄ and CO were detected as major carbon products for all photocatalysts, with minor amounts of CH₃OH. Carbon monoxide is the main product obtained over TiO₂ regardless of the presence of COK-12 as a mesoporous support, whereas Pt leads to CO₂ reduction towards CH₄ formation, with a selectivity that reaches *ca.* 100% with optimum loading. Supporting the Pt/TiO₂ catalysts on COK-12 preserves the selectivity of the reaction towards CH₄ and further improves the overall activity of the Pt/TiO₂ materials. After-reaction attenuated total reflection infrared spectroscopy (ATR-IR) and *in-situ* near ambient pressure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (NAP-XPS) have been employed to identify reaction intermediates and used to explain the observed selectivity trends.

1. Introduction

Greenhouse gases such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄), nitrous oxide (N2O), ozone (O3) and chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are the primary cause of global warming. Since 1750, beginning of the Industrial Revolution, human activities have produced a 40% increase in the atmospheric concentration of carbon dioxide, from 280 ppm in 1750 to 400 ppm in 2015 [1]. The amount of CO₂ emitted to the atmosphere can be diminished mainly by three methodologies: i) efficient use of carbon-based energy sources; ii) use of alternative or carbon-free energy sources; and iii) capture of CO2 by post-treatment technologies and subsequent use for different applications, e.g. meat freezing, methanol production, or injection into geological formation for enhanced recovery of fossil fuel products [2,3]. Currently, great research activities have been devoted to CO2 capture, storage and utilization, among which the photocatalytic reduction of CO2 into hydrocarbon fuels is considered to be one of the most promising solutions to stabilize the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere [4,5]. Inoue et al. showed the

possibility to reduce CO_2 photoelectrocatalytically using semiconductor materials as early as 1979 [6]. Since then, the efficient photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 with H_2O has remained one of the most desirable and challenging goals in the research for energy and environment. The photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 is not only attractive due to is potential to remove CO_2 but also because it can promote its conversion into energy-bearing or chemically useful products such as methane (CH₄), methanol (CH₃OH), formaldehyde (HCHO), carbon monoxide (CO), formic acid (HCOOH) and ethylene (C_2H_4) [7].

The photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 is based on the use of electrons and holes produced in a semiconductor (most usually TiO_2), upon irradiation with light of the appropriate energy (UV for TiO_2), to promote reduction and oxidation reactions of molecular species adsorbed on the semiconductor surface. So far, titania (TiO_2) has been the most explored semiconductor for photocatalytic applications due to its outstanding chemical and thermal stability. However, its large band gap and relatively high recombination rate of photoinduced electron-hole pairs still leave room from improvement of its photocatalytic activity [8].

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Particularly for energy applications of photocatalysis, improving the electron-hole separation efficiency and light utilization ability of TiO2 would make a significant impact. Among other strategies, the modification of TiO2 through noble metal deposition is widely applied by researchers in the field of photocatalytic CO2 reduction. Ishitani et al. [9] were the first to systematically study the photoreduction of CO₂ on a series of metal-decorated TiO2 showing that depositing metals on TiO₂ could enhance the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ and modify the product distribution. Afterwards, there has been a significant number of works reporting that such co-catalysts loaded on the surface of the semiconductor can serve as electron traps to enhance the separation of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs and hence improve the photocatalytic activity and change the selectivity of the reaction [10-14]. Noble metals in particular, e.g. Pt, Pd, Au, Ag, and Rh, can act as electron sinks that promote multi-electron transfer reactions that are crucial for photocatalytic efficient reduction of CO₂ [14-16]. Among those, Pt shows the highest work function (5.65 eV) and therefore lowest Fermi level and strongest electron-extracting capacity [14], and its effect as co-catalyst in CO2 photoreduction has been the subject of a significant number of works [14,17-23]. Generally, the increased activity observed in Pt/TiO2 catalysts compared to bare titania is ascribed to improved electron lifetime due to the mentioned ability of platinum to extract photoexcited electrons from the conduction band of TiO2. Thus, this has been proven with photoluminescence and transient absorption spectroscopies [17,21-23], though not only for platinum but also for other metals such as silver [24], gold [25], palladium and rhodium [26]. However, platinum has shown, compared to other cocatalysts, exceptional selectivity to methane in CO2 photoreduction [14,23] and, therefore, additional factors apart from the purely electronic ones must play a role in differentiating Pt nanoparticles, like surface chemistry and interaction with adsorbates [23,27], which on the other hand is to be expected when dealing with catalytic processes [28]. The main motivation of this work is to elucidate these additional factors that make Pt not only increase the activity of TiO2 catalysts for CO2 reduction, but also modify the selectivity towards highly reduce products. This would mean a significant contribution in the way towards the design of more selective photocatalytic systems for CO2 reduction.

Another effective strategy to develop highly active photocatalysts is the construction of isolated photoactive centers in porous matrices or loading photocatalyst NPs onto zeolites or mesoporous molecular sieves. Highly dispersed Ti-oxides in silica matrices are one of the best performing photocatalysts in direct CO2 reduction to hydrocarbons, as pioneered by Anpo and co-workers in the 1990s [29]. It is clear that the activity and selectivity of photocatalysts for different products strongly depend on the chemical nature of the supports. In brief, highly dispersed titanium dioxide in mesoporous silica materials (KIT-6, FSM-16, SBA-15 and TUD-1) leads to relatively high yields of CH4 or/and CH₃OH, which makes it a promising candidate for CO₂ photoreduction [30]. Studies by Shioya et al. [31] and Li et al. [32] employed silica as support due to its even composition and ordered mesoporous structure with small channels. Sasirekha et al. [33] and Yang et al. [34] found that the combination of metal-doped TiO2 with mesoporous silica enhanced the reaction rate due to effective dispersion of the photocatalyst and improved adsorption of CO₂ and H₂O on the surface of the support. Improved surface area and better dispersion of was also demonstrated for cerium Ce-TiO2 on mesoporous silica (SBA-15) [35] in CO2 photoreduction studies, showing that Ce-TiO2 dispersion on the silica matrix (Ti:Si-1:4) not only improved textural properties compared to pure TiO2, but also resulted in an order of magnitude increase in CO and CH₄ production. The adsorption properties of silica resulting from its unique mesoporous structure was one of the contributing factors due to the increased localized CO2 concentration near the TiO2 surface where photocatalysis could occur.

The goal of this work is therefore to shed light on the role of platinum nanoparticles acting as co-catalyst for TiO_2 -photocatalyzed CO_2

reduction, aided by a high-surface mesoporous support. For that purpose, platinum has been deposited on a composite of commercial ${\rm TiO_2}$ (Degussa P25) and COK-12 as ordered mesoporous silica material. Different Pt loadings with and without the COK-12 have been prepared, fully characterized and tested in a gas-phase photoreactor. In addition, selected samples have been characterized *in situ* with near ambient pressure x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (NAP-XPS) and after reaction using attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR). Special attention has been paid to the reaction pathways behind the improved selectivity towards methane production against the formation of CO mainly observed on bare titania.

2. Experimental

2.1. Preparation of photocatalysts

2.1.1. Synthesis of ordered mesoporous silica (COK-12)

Ordered mesoporous silica COK-12 was prepared as described elsewhere [31]. The synthesis takes place at room temperature. In a typical synthesis, 100 g of triblock copolymer P123 were dissolved in 2687.5 mL deionized water. After complete P123 dissolution, 92.1 g anhydrous citric acid and 63.5 g trisodium citrate dehydrate were added to control the synthesis pH between 4 and 5. The buffered surfactant solution was then stirred with overhead mechanical stirring for 24 h. A solution of 260 g sodium silicate and 750 mL deionized water was prepared and incorporated into the buffered micellar solution. Immediate solid formation was observed, and stirring was maintained for 5 min after which the slurry was kept for 24 h without stirring. The solid was separated from the mother liquor by vacuum filtration and thoroughly washed with deionized water, and then dried at 60 °C overnight. The dry solid was then calcined at 500 °C for 8 h, with a 1 °C/min heating ramp to completely remove the organic templating agent.

2.1.2. Preparation of Pt/TiO₂ photocatalysts

Pt/TiO₂ photocatalysts containing different platinum percentages were prepared by a deposition–precipitation method, according to the one initially developed by Haruta and co-workers [36]. In this procedure, different solutions were prepared, containing the appropriate amounts of the Pt precursor in 300 mL of milli-Q water. The pH of the solutions was adjusted to 9 by addition of a 0.1 M solution of NaOH. Once the pH value was stable, 2 g of TiO₂ (P25, Evonik) were added under vigorous stirring. The deposition–precipitation procedure was done at 70 °C, maintaining the pH constant during 2 h, and then the slurry was stirred overnight. The catalysts were washed and dried at 80 °C under vacuum overnight. Samples were labeled as XPt/TiO₂, where X indicates the platinum loading determined by ICP-OES in wt.

2.1.3. Preparation of Pt/TiO2-COK-12 photocatalysts

Firstly, a titania sol was prepared according to the patented procedure [37] described also in our previous article [38]. Titanium isopropoxide (TTIP, 0.0492 mol) in ethanolic solution was hydrolyzed by acidic (HClO₄) aqueous solution. The resulting mixture was refluxed for 48 h. After such a prolonged refluxing, a stable stock of nanocrystalline titania sol was obtained. Separately, a homogeneous silica sol was prepared from TEOS (0.017 mol), de-ionized water (0.11 mol) and HCl (0.183 mmol), to hydrolyze silica precursor for later condensation reactions. The nanocrystalline titania sol (4.2 mL), the silica sol (600 mL), Levasil 200/30% (1 mL), and absolute ethanol (4 mL) were gradually mixed together to give a binder sol. Finally, a mixture of XPt/TiO2 and COK-12 in 1:1 wt. proportions was suspended in the binder sol. The suspension was then placed in a cold ultrasonic bath for 10 min which promotes the infiltration of nanoparticles into the mesopores [39]. It is important to mention that the amount of titanium (TTIP) in the titania/ binder sol suspension is 0.0081 mol while the amount of commercial titania (P25) is 0.05 mol. It has been shown in previous studies that the

effect of titania from TTIP in the titania/binder sol suspension is very low compared with commercial titania, acting only as a binder component [38]. Samples were labeled as XPt/TiO₂-COK-12, where X is the same as that in the corresponding XPt/TiO₂ sample.

2.2. Characterization

2.2.1. Characterization of COK-12

Long-range ordering of the ordered mesoporous silica COK-12 was studied by small-angle X-ray diffraction (SAXRD) in a Bruker AXS D8 ADVANCE with a Bragg-Brentano geometry and a Lynx Eye 1D detector with CuKα radiation (Bruker, Germany). Measurements were carried out between 0.5 and 6.0° 20 value, with a step time of $1 \text{ s}/0.0003^{\circ}$ at 35 kV and 40 mA and with a 280 mm sample-detector distance. The patterns were analyzed using the Diffrac-Plus/EVA software from Bruker AXS. The pore structure, pore size and specific surface area were studied with nitrogen sorption analysis in a QuadraSorb Station 4 apparatus (Quantachrome, USA). Isotherms were recorded at 77 K after degassing the samples for 10 h at 200 °C under vacuum. The surface area was determined using the Brunauer, Emmet and Teller (BET) method [40]. The estimation of the pore size was based on NLDFT calculations using the adsorption branch of the isotherm. All nitrogen sorption data were analyzed using the Quantachrome/QuadraWin software.

2.2.2. Characterization of Pt/TiO₂ and Pt/TiO₂-COK-12 photocatalysts

The crystalline phases of synthesized photocatalyst powders were examined by XRD. The XRD patterns were obtained on a Bruker D8 Advance using Cu K α radiation in the range between 10 and 80° with a step size of 0.034°. The diffraction patterns were analyzed using Rietveld refinement to determine the anatase average crystallite sizes. Sample displacement and zero error have been taken into account. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area of the powder specimen were calculated from the nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms at 77 K, using a Micromeritics-Gemini chemisorption system. The diffuse reflectance UV-vis absorption spectra were measured using a UV-vis spectrophotometer equipped with an integrating sphere (LAMBDA 650 UV/Vis with 150 mm integrating sphere, Perkin Elmer, USA). Indirect band-gap energies were determined from Tauc plots [41]. TEM images were obtained in a JEOL 7401 F microscope operated at 300 kV and at a working distance of 9 mm. The concentration of Pt in the catalyst was measured by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry (ICP-OES, Varian Inc., USA). To dissolve the platinum, a microwave method (Discover SP-D, CEM, USA) was used. Calibration of the setup was done with a commercial Pt standard solution. FTIR spectra of used catalysts were recorded on a Nicolet 6700 spectrometer (Thermo-Scientific, USA) with an ATR accessory and a DTGS detector, accumulating 32 scans with a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. Spectra were collected at room temperature taking the naked fiber glass support as blank spectrum.

NAP-XPS spectra were acquired at the CIRCE beamline of ALBA Synchrotron, Spain. The photon energy range is 90-2000 eV and the hemispherical electron energy analyzer is a Phoibos NAP150 from SPECS that can operate at sample pressures ranging from ultra-high vacuum (UHV) up to 20 mbar. The photon energy used for the measurements was 620 eV. Photon energy calibration was done using the Au 4f level measured in a gold foil. High resolution scans (Ti2p, Pt4f, C1 s and O1 s) were acquired using 10 eV pass energy and 0.1 eV step size. The overall energy resolution was 225 meV. Samples were analyzed under sequential conditions: UHV, CO2+H2O atmosphere (7:1 molar ratio, total pressure 0.05 mbar) in the dark, $CO_2 + H_2O$ under UV (Hamamatsu high power UV LED centred at 365 nm), and CO2+H2O in the dark after reaction. Ultrapure water (LC-MS CHRO-MASOLV® grade, Sigma-Aldrich) was introduced into the chamber through a variable high precision leak valve after being degassed by multiple freeze - pump - thaw cycles. CO₂ (purity ≥ 99.995%, Abelló

Linde) was introduced into the chamber directly from a commercial cylinder. The experiments were performed in "static mode", i.e. the analysis chamber was only pumped through the analyser entrance and through the photons entrance. Casa XPS software was used for data analysis. Shirley or two-point linear background subtractions were employed depending on the background shape. Peaks were fitted using GL(30) lineshapes. Known binding energies were used for charge correction: C1 s spectra to adventitious hydrocarbon (285 eV) [42] and Ti2p and O1 s spectra to the TiO₂ characteristic signals measured by Diebold and co. (459.3 eV and 530.4 eV respectively) [43].

2.3. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction

Gas-phase CO₂ photoreduction experiments were conducted in continuous-flow mode in a stainless steel reactor with an effective volume of 280 mL and provided with a borosilicate window for irradiation. A suspension of 100 mg of powdered catalyst was deposited on a glass microfiber filter, dried at 100 °C under vacuum and fitted inside the reactor. UV illumination was carried out using four 6 W lamps with a maximum wavelength at 365 nm and an average irradiance of 71.7 W/m². Pure CO₂ and water were fed into the reaction system with a CO2:H2O molar ratio of 7.25 using a Controlled Evaporation and Mixing (CEM) unit. The reaction conditions were set at 2 bar and 50 °C. The products of the reaction were determined on-line by a gas chromatograph (GC Bruker 450) equipped with two separation branches and two sampling loops. The first separation branch was equipped with two semicapillary columns (BR-Q Plot and BR-Molesieve5A). This branch was also equipped with a Thermal Conductivity Detector (TCD), a Flame Ionization Detector (FID) and a methanizer. The second separation branch consisted on a capillary column (CP-Sil5B) and a second Flame Ionization Detector (FID).

Before starting the experiments, the reactor was firstly vacuumed at $50\,^{\circ}$ C and then purged with Ar ($100\,\text{mL/min}$) for 1 h in order to remove any residual organic compounds weakly adsorbed to the surface of the catalyst. Then, CO_2 and H_2O were flowed in the dark for 1 h to establish an adsorption–desorption balance at the reaction temperature. Prior to illumination, the reactor was pressurized and kept at a reaction flow rate of 2 mL/min for another 1 h. All photocatalytic tests were carried out for 18 h. Control experiments under inert atmosphere (Ar) were performed following the same procedure and under the same conditions described above. The quantum yield index (QYI) was calculated as the ratio between the apparent quantum yield (AQY) with the corresponding sample and that with bare TiO_2 [24]:

$$QYI = \frac{AQY_{catalyst}}{AQY_{TiO2}} \tag{1}$$

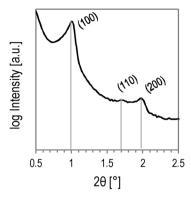
$$AQY = \frac{\sum (product formation \ rate \times e^{-} \ implied)}{photon \ flux}$$
 (2)

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Structural, textural and surface characteristics of the photocatalysts

The ordered mesoporous COK-12 was characterized via small-angle X-ray diffraction (SAXRD) and nitrogen adsorption (Fig. 1). The SAXRD pattern revealed three well-resolved diffraction peaks that are indexed as (100), (110) and (200) and correspond to a *P6mm* hexagonal symmetry [44]. Nitrogen sorption analysis revealed type IV isotherms with type H1 hysteresis, characteristic of materials with open cylindrical mesopores with a narrow pore size distribution, confirmed by the steep adsorption-desorption branches [45,46]. The BET surface area is $621.3 \,\mathrm{m}^2/\mathrm{g}$ and the mean pore size distribution determined by NLDFT is $6.1 \,\mathrm{nm}$, with a pore volume of $0.55 \,\mathrm{cm}^3/\mathrm{g}$. All analytical results confirm the characteristics of COK-12 materials [47–49].

The X-ray diffractograms (Fig. 2) of Pt/TiO2 and Pt/TiO2-COK-12



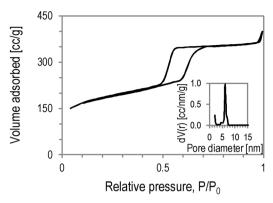


Fig. 1. Left: Small-angle XRD pattern of as-calcined COK-12 revealing 3 characteristic reflections of a hexagonal symmetry. Right: nitrogen adsorption isotherm of as-calcined COK-12. Inlet: pore size distribution determined by NLDFT.

photocatalysts confirmed that they contained anatase and rutile phases as it is well known for P25 ${\rm TiO_2}$ [50]. The crystallite sizes of anatase (Table 1) are also in good accordance with previously reported values [50]. The slight deviations observed for the different samples must correspond to the determination uncertainty rather than to actual differences which are not to be expected from the described synthetic protocols. No Pt species were detected in XRD diagrams, which may be traced back to an ultrafine dispersion of Pt nanoparticles on ${\rm TiO_2}$ and/or its low Pt content in the samples as measured by ICP –OES (Table 1).

The specific surface areas of as-prepared photocatalysts are summarized in Table 1. The pure ${\rm TiO_2}$ has the lowest surface area of $55.0\,{\rm m^2\,g^{-1}}$. Loading with Pt increases the surface area to around $65.7\,{\rm m^2\,g^{-1}}$ for the largest platinum amount. It was reported that deposition of Pt nanoparticles increases the surface area of ${\rm TiO_2}$ nanoparticles [19], which may be related to the small size of Pt nanoparticles. COK-12 has a large surface area of originally $621.3\,{\rm m^2\,g^{-1}}$, which decreases in the samples containing titania. The effect of Pt loading on surface area can be also observed in the Pt/TiO₂-COK-12 catalysts. Regarding indirect band-gap energies of the as-prepared samples, as expected, no significant deviations from the value of $3.1\,{\rm eV}$ determined for titania from Tauc plots (Supplementary Data, Fig. S1) are observed upon deposition of Pt or incorporation of silica.

The TEM images of samples $0.5 \, \text{Pt/TiO}_2$ and $2 \, \text{Pt/TiO}_2$ are shown in Fig. 3. As it can be seen, Pt nanoparticles are spread all over the titania particles. The increased amount of Pt nanoparticles on the titania surface when moving from ca. 0.5 to ca. $2 \, \text{wt.}\%$ loading is evident from the images. But still the Pt nanoparticles are finely dispersed over the whole TiO_2 support with particle sizes of around 0.5 to $1 \, \text{nm. Fig. } 3$ also shows the morphology of $0.5 \, \text{Pt/TiO}_2$ -COK-12 with low and high magnification, the former revealing that COK-12 has one-dimensional channels of ordered pores that are clearly identified. The pore size as determined by

Table 1
Main characteristics of the synthesized photocatalysts.

Sample	Anatase crystallite size (nm)	S_{BET} (m^2/g)]	Pt content ^a
TiO ₂	19	55	_
TiO ₂ -COK-12	19	205	_
COK-12	-	621	-
0.1 Pt/TiO ₂	20	55	0.13 %
0.5 Pt/TiO ₂	20	56	0.58 %
2 Pt/TiO ₂	21	66	2.39 %
0.1 Pt/TiO ₂ -COK-12	16	207	0.13 %
0.5 Pt/TiO ₂ -COK-12	17	216	0.58 %
2 Pt/TiO ₂ -COK-12	20	226	2.39 %

^a Weight percentage with respect to TiO₂ after Pt/TiO₂ synthesis.

TEM is around 5.4 nm, in good accordance to N_2 adsorption results. In this sample, it can be seen that Pt/TiO_2 is dispersed on the surface and possibly inside the pore walls. However, the fraction of TiO_2 nanoparticles embedded in the pores of COK-12 is difficult to measure. The Pt/TiO_2 particles may block a portion of pores, which explains why the measured surface area of the samples containing Pt/TiO_2 is smaller than that of pure COK-12. Aggregates of Pt/TiO_2 on the outer surface of COK-12 are shown in the high-magnification image of 0.5 Pt/TiO_2 -COK-12. Clear lattice fringes of TiO_2 as well as finely dispersed Pt nanoparticles in size of around 0.5 to 1 nm can be observed.

3.2. Photocatalytic reduction of CO_2

Fig. 4 shows the accumulated amounts of the main reaction products over 16 h of irradiation. TiO₂ led mainly to the formation of CO, together with H₂ resulting from the parallel reduction of water,

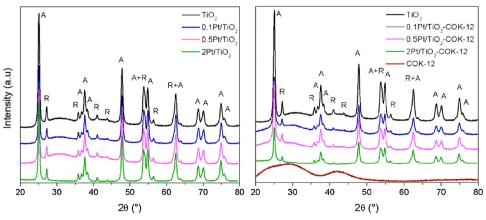


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of Pt/TiO2 and Pt/TiO2-COK-12 with different Pt loading. Labels A and R stand for anatase and rutile phases, respectively.

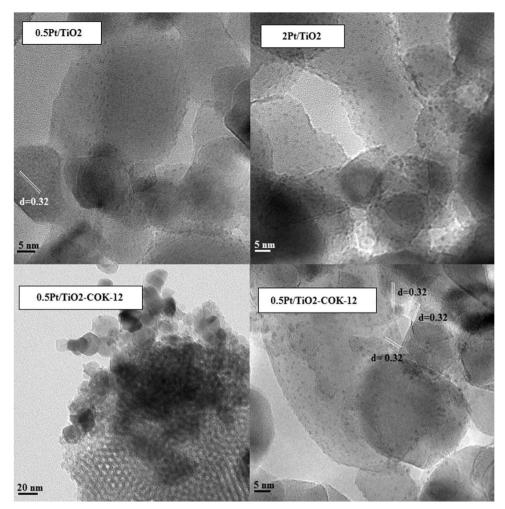


Fig. 3. TEM images of 0.5 Pt/TiO₂, 2 Pt/TiO₂ and 0.5 Pt/TiO₂-COK-12.

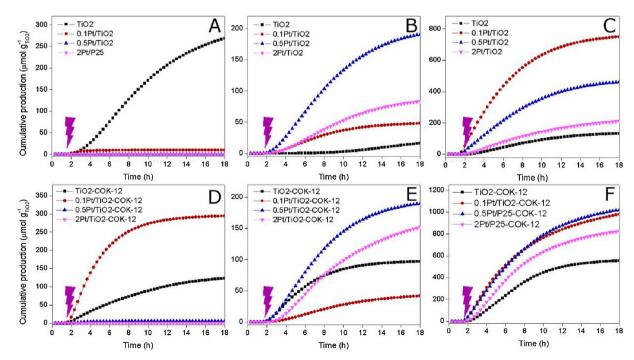


Fig. 4. Evolution of the main products obtained in the photocatalytic reduction of CO₂: CO (A, D), CH₄ (B, E), H₂ (C, F), over unsupported (A, B, C) and COK-12-supported (D, E, F) Pt/TiO₂ catalysts.

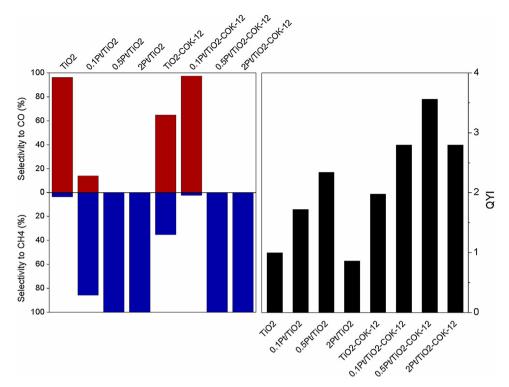


Fig. 5. Net selectivities and quantum yield indices (QYI) obtained with the different catalysts. The QYI with TiO2 is 1 by definition.

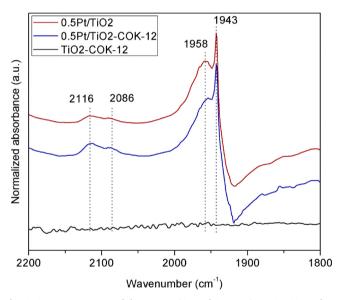


Fig. 6. ATR-FTIR spectra of the 0.5 Pt/TiO $_2$ and 0.5 Pt/TiO $_2$ -COK-12 catalysts after reaction, in the CO stretching region.

competing with CO_2 for conduction band electrons. Methane was formed in a minor amount, and so was methanol (Fig. S2). Traces of other minor products like ethanol and C_2 hydrocarbons were also detected. The introduction of Pt drastically changed the situation, largely promoting the formation of methane at the expense of carbon monoxide, as well as the evolution of hydrogen, which could be expected taking into account the catalytic properties of Pt for photocatalytic hydrogen evolution [51]. Thus, the deposition of 0.13 wt.% of platinum resulted in a considerably larger CH_4 production and smaller CO evolution, which upon increasing the Pt amount to 0.58% and 2.39% turned into practically 100% selectivity to CH_4 , the former producing a larger overall amount of this molecule. As described in the introduction, some works had already reported that loading of Pt lowered the

recombination rate of photogenerated electron-hole pairs and improved the photocatalytic reduction efficiency of CO_2 to methane, with an optimum loading of metal above which shading effects or excessive surface coverage occur [17–23].

Similar results were observed in the case of the Pt/TiO_2 -COK-12 catalysts, in which nevertheless the effect of Pt was diluted after supporting on COK-12 when it was present in only 0.13 wt.% with respect to titania, but reached a maximum in CH_4 production and selectivity with 0.58 wt.% as in the case of the unsupported catalysts. Among all the studied samples methanol production varied only within 10% with the different samples (Fig. S2), revealing a negligible effect of both the support and the co-catalysts on this product.

Irradiation experiments with P25 in an inert atmosphere (Ar) revealed that most of the CH_4 production (ca. 75%) arose from carbon residues on the catalyst surface. In the case of the TiO_2 -COK-12 catalyst, notwithstanding that organic residues from the synthesis procedure of the SiO_2 support are likely contributing to carbon product formation [52], the amount of CH_4 in inert atmosphere decreased to 50% that found when CO_2 and H_2O are fed to the reactor. Therefore, the data shown in Fig. 4 partially account for reaction of the carbonaceous species on the surface of the catalysts. Remarkably, in the case of the platinum-containing catalysts this contribution is in no case larger than 30 % except for the case of the non-methane-selective O.1 Pt/ TiO_2 -COK-12, revealing that these catalysts are indeed selectively reducing CO_2 to CH_4 . After the contributions of the reaction under inert atmosphere have been subtracted, the selectivities between CO and CH_4 and the quantum yield indices shown in Fig. 5 are attained.

It can be concluded that the appropriate Pt content can improve the photocatalytic CO_2 reduction towards CH_4 formation as it was already reported [17–23] and, furthermore, that the selectivity can reach ca. 100% when at least 0.5 wt.% Pt with respect to TiO_2 is deposited on the surface of the catalyst. Supporting these Pt/TiO_2 catalysts on mesoporous SiO_2 (COK-12) keeps the CH_4 selectivities at these Pt loadings and, as revealed by QYI values, further improves the overall photocatalytic activity of the Pt/TiO_2 materials, which can be related to the additional effect of increased surface area and titania dispersion [30–35]. These properties are optimum in the case of the $0.5 \, Pt/$

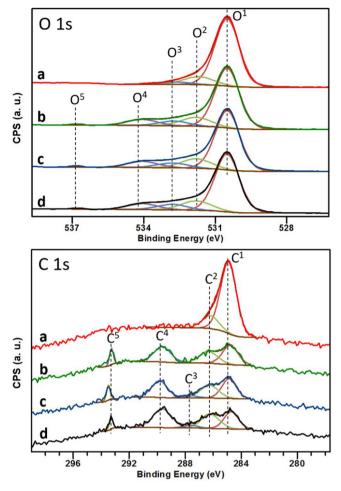


Fig. 7. O1s and C1s high resolution XPS spectra of $0.5\,\mathrm{Pt/TiO_2}$ under sequential conditions: (a) UHV (b) $0.05\,\mathrm{mbar}$ CO₂:H₂O 7:1 in the dark (c) $0.05\,\mathrm{mbar}$ CO₂:H₂O 7:1 under UV (d) $0.05\,\mathrm{mbar}$ CO₂:H₂O 7:1 in the dark after reaction.

TiO₂ – COK-12 catalyst.

3.3. Spectroscopic surface studies of the CO₂ reduction pathway

In order to gain further insight into the reaction pathways leading to the observed selectivity to CH_4 in the present samples, FTIR spectra in ATR mode were recorded on the catalysts after reaction, as depicted in Fig. 6 using the optimum 0.5 Pt catalysts as example.

No features are observed in the CO stretching region on the P25-

COK-12 sample, revealing negligible contribution to CO adsorption of these two components. In the case of the Pt-COntaining catalysts, however, peaks associated to CO chemisorbed on Pt are observed. Thus, the signals at 2086 and $2116\,\mathrm{cm^{-1}}$ can be assigned to CO molecules linearly bound to Pt° and Ptδ⁺ sites, respectively [53–56]. In addition, bands at wavenumbers as low as 1958 and 1943 cm⁻¹, like the ones observed in Fig. 6, have been ascribed to CO chemisorbed on Pt sites with exceptional electron donating properties strongly interacting with the support, and tentatively assigned to Ti³+-Pt-CO species [55,57]. The presence of these CO signals after reaction in the here reported catalysts may therefore be an indication of the existence of highly reducing sites able to promote the strong adsorption and further reduction of CO to CH4.

In order to shed light onto this CO-Pt interaction, NAP-XPS measurements on a 0.5 Pt/TiO2 sample were conducted under irradiation in a CO2+H2O atmosphere, following the sequence described in the experimental section. The survey scan of the sample at UHV (Fig. S3) shows the presence of all expected elements (O, Ti, Pt and C). No other elements appear after varying the experimental conditions (Fig. S2). The Ti2p region (Fig. S4) displays the typical spectrum of TiO₂ [43] without perceptible changes during the experiment (Fig. S5). A similar observation can be made regarding the Pt4f spectra (Fig. S6), in which shoulders assigned to $Pt\delta^+$ species [58] appear at the high energy side of the main $4f_{7/2}$ and $4f_{5/2}$ peaks of metallic Pt [42] centered at 71.1 and 74.5 eV, respectively. These signals do not experience significant changes neither when varying the ambient conditions nor during or after the photocatalytic reaction (Fig. S7). In this respect, the main signals and shoulders mentioned above would hide contributions from Pt atoms bound to chemisorbed species such as CO or carbonyl species [59]. The O1 s and C1 s high resolution scans acquired under the sequential experimental conditions are shown in Fig. 7. At ultra-high vacuum, the main contribution to the O1 s signal (O1 component in the fitting of Fig. 7) comes from the oxygen atoms within TiO₂ and has been charge corrected to the reference value of 530.4 eV [43]. Two smaller components O² (531.7 eV) and O³ (532.7 eV) are observed, which have been fitted with relatively large FWHM given the different potential contributions to the peaks. Component O² would contain a small contribution from an unidentified signal intrinsic to the TiO2 structure and a larger one from OH groups adsorbed on the bridging sites of the TiO2 structure [60,61], while O³ is assigned to the characteristic signal of terminal OH groups on the TiO₂ surface [61]. The binding energies of O² and O³ components, however, could also be compatible with adsorbed CO₂ and carbonate species [62,63], or even with different CO adsorption modes on Pt [64,65]. Indeed, these two components increase their contribution to the spectrum upon introduction of CO2 and H₂O in the chamber and further augment with UV irradiation. These components remain in the spectrum when the UV irradiation is turned back off, which confirms that the elements contributing to these peaks are from compounds that remain at the surface and may therefore be

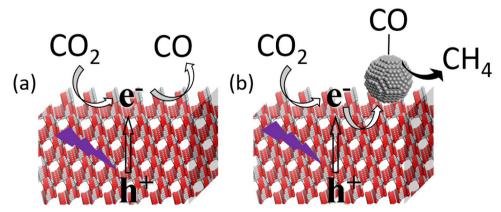


Fig. 8. Schematic representation of the proposed reaction pathway over (a) TiO2 and (b) Pt/TiO2 catalysts.

related to the chemisorption of these species. Additionally, two new signals O⁴ (533.8 eV) and O⁵ (536.7 eV) appear when CO₂ and H₂O are present. The first of them is assigned to water adsorbed on TiO₂ [60,61] and the second one has been identified as CO2 gas by retracting the sample from the analysis spot and analyzing only the gas phase. In accordance with the reaction results, no gas-phase CO is observed in either the O1 s or the C1 s spectra [63]. The C1 s region in UHV conditions shows, in addition to the signal at 285 eV identified as adventitious aliphatic carbon (C¹ component in the fitting of Fig. 7), a second C² contribution at 286.2 eV that can be related to C-OH and related species [42]. In line with the O 1s spectra, two new signals appear in the presence of CO₂ and H₂O: C⁴ at 289.6 eV, assigned to surface carbonate species [62,63], and C⁵ at 293.4 eV, identified as gasphase CO2 by retracting the sample from the analysis spot. Upon UV irradiation, the relative contribution of the C² component increases by ca. 25% and a shoulder appears in its high-energy side, which has been fitted as C3 (287.2 eV). These two effects are maintained even after UV irradiation ceases. In this respect, the small increase in the C² component could be related to chemisorbed CO in bridging mode [64,66,67], while the C³ component binding energy is characteristic of single-site adsorbed carbon monoxide [64,66] and surface formate [62].

In-situ NAP-XPS observations both in the O 1 s and C 1 s region are compatible, in addition to the formation of carbonate species on the surface of ${\rm TiO_2}$ in contact with ${\rm CO_2}$ and water [68,69], with a strong chemisorption of CO, as inferred from the ATR spectra, or even formate species, in the presence of ${\rm TiO_2}$ -supported Pt nanoparticles. This strong adsorption could promote the total reduction of ${\rm CO_2}$ into ${\rm CH_4}$ as observed in the photocatalytic tests, preventing CO from being the main product as it is the case for bare ${\rm TiO_2}$, either unsupported or supported onto mesoporous silica. This proposed reaction pathways in the presence and absence of Pt is schematically depected in Fig. 8.

4. Conclusion

Pt/TiO $_2$ and Pt/TiO $_2$ -COK-12 photocatalysts have been synthesized by a deposition-precipitation method. In photocatalytic CO $_2$ reduction over these samples in a continuous flow photoreactor, H $_2$, CH $_4$ and CO are detected as major products in all cases. While carbon monoxide is the main product obtained over TiO $_2$ regardless of the presence of the COK-12 as a mesoporous support. The addition of Pt leads to CO $_2$ reduction towards CH $_4$ formation, with a selectivity that reaches ca. 100% at optimum platinum loadings. Supporting the Pt/TiO $_2$ photocatalysts on COK-12 preserves the CH $_4$ preferential selectivity and further improves the overall activity of the Pt/TiO $_2$ materials. After-reaction ATR-IR and in-situ NAP-XPS spectra suggest a strong adsorption of CO on highly electron donating Pt sites that favours total reduction to methane.

Acknowledgements

The work was supported by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research of Germany under the "CO2Plus funding measure - Use of $\rm CO_2$ to broaden the raw material basis" under the grant number 033RC003, by the International Postdoc Initiative (IPODI) of the European Union and by the Spanish Ministry of Science, Innovation and Universities through the projects SOLPAC (ENE2017-89170-R) and Ra-Phuel (ENE2016-79608-C2-1-R). Support from the Repsol Technology Centre is gratefully acknowledged. The authors would like to thank the assistance of ALBA staff for the measurements at the CIRCE beamline from the ALBA Synchrotron Light Source. We would like to thank Christina Eichenauer and Maria Unterweger from TU Berlin for nitrogen sorption and SAXRD measurements.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the

online version, at doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.08.003.

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